

The History Teacher's Magazine

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The Massacre of St. Bartholomew; August 24, 1572

From J. W. Thompson's "The Wars of Religion in France," p. 422

(See page 219 of this issue)

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The Pro-Seminary in History in the University of Michigan

BY FREDERIC L. PAXSON.

A serious problem is connected with the upper class student who has completed his elementary work and has followed it with one or more courses dealing with specific periods in European or American history. It is common in the University of Michigan to have seniors who, in preparing to teach history, have covered *General Europe*, 8 hours; *English History*, 6 hours; *American History, 1763-1861*, 6 hours, and *American History, 1861-1903*, 6 hours. On the European side, students come with similar totals based upon different courses. Most of these do not intend to proceed to graduate work, yet they desire to continue in history, and more courses have to be made ready for them.

There comes a time in the undergraduate's development when additional "period" lecture courses cease to be desirable. The student has got tired of sitting under lectures. The necessary method of these courses is such that the specializing student soon learns how to do his work easily; reading ceases to have terrors for him; and lecture notes come to be well under control. At this point he has reached the stage where he needs more personal attention than the lecture course can give him. If he were prepared to go into the seminary, and it were desirable to put him there, the problem would be easy of solution. But he frequently continues to need systematic collection of facts after the lecture course has lost its special virtues. He does not need the minute scrutiny of single episodes that the seminary affords.

This condition, recurring from year to year, has brought into existence at Michigan the pro-seminary which, though avowedly neither fish nor flesh, appears to meet the need fairly well. In brief, the pro-seminary picks out a period or a subject, divides it into individual assignments, and devotes the greater part of its time to listening to individual reports from the members of the class upon their respective topics. Three classes of this sort are generally in progress; one each in European, English and American history.

The obvious reflection upon this method of instruction for students who are not primarily engaged in a study of the sources is that it sacrifices the time of the class to a series of immature, disjointed exercises,

in which only the student reporting gets any considerable benefit. There is some justice in this view; yet in practice the scheme works. It is possible to arrange the assignment of subjects and the form of the reports so as to give some unity to the course. It is to be remembered that it is a device for the student who is already familiar with the machinery of the lecture, and who needs to do his own work for himself. The history laboratory is not yet in general use, but the pro-seminary contains some of the elements of real laboratory work.

In a course in American history conducted in this fashion during a recent semester, there were fifteen students registered. The class met weekly for a two-hour period, holding in all some sixteen sessions. The field chosen for study was the decade 1850-1860, with which all the members of the class had some acquaintance, but which none had studied in detail. If the class had registered more than twenty students, two sections would have been organized.

The first meeting was devoted to general remarks and admonitions upon the manner of working, the making of bibliographies, and the making of the final report to the class. This report was in each instance to be the chief item of work, and forty minutes were to be allowed for its delivery; while the student was required to have a personal consultation with the instructor after he had collected his material and before he presented his report.

The reports, which were arranged in rough chronological order, covered many phases of the history of the decade:

California, 1848-1850.
Slavery in the Territories,
William Lloyd Garrison.
Seventh of March Speech.
Campaign of 1852.
Life of James Buchanan.
Douglas as Spokesman of West.
Kansas-Nebraska Bill.
Fight for Kansas.
Rise of Republican Party.
John C. Frémont.
Campaign of 1856.
Know-Nothing Movement.
Dred Scott Case.
John Brown.

After these had been assigned, four meet-

ings of the class were devoted to a series of brief preliminary reports, dealing chiefly with the bibliography of the subjects. Through these, the whole class was made familiar with the general bibliography of the period before any final reports had been made, with the result that many of the students profited by the joint work of the class. While these were in progress, there was ample opportunity for the instructor to unify the work through his comments in criticism and in addition.

Following the preliminary reports, while all the members of the class were reading upon their topics, two weeks were devoted to making and examining political and territorial maps, and to reviewing books of general interest in the period which did not fall within the scope of any assigned paper. Thus several of the leading periodicals were investigated,—*"Hunt's Merchants' Magazine," "DeBow's Review," "The North American Review,"* etc., and such books as *"The Impending Crisis," "Uncle Tom's Cabin,"* and Olmsted's *"Seaboard Slave States."*

By the end of November the class had made itself generally familiar with the outlines of the period, while those first on the list had got ready their reports. The formal reports were delivered, two to the session, in sequence. The class rule was that no student should take more than forty minutes, but that each should make good use of all his time. In what was left of the two-hour meeting after eighty minutes of reports had been listened to, there was a general discussion of the papers and their relation to each other. This was the least successful part of the course, since it was found difficult to induce the students to criticize each other. There were many questions, however, and some criticism, while the instructor had another opportunity to unify the work of all as well as to discuss individual performance.

The final reports, all delivered from notes, were less uninteresting than might have been expected. The capacity of a senior, who has already taken several courses in history from preference, is considerable. There were naturally many mistakes in fact and point of view, and many in mode of presentation, but the class showed distinct power of self-criticism in that the quality

of the reports improved steadily until the end of the course.

The materials used by students in working up their subjects were both original and secondary. In many cases the originals were accessible and readily handled. But no special effort was made to drive the student into the sources. Secondary works formed the basis of most reports. It was the deliberate purpose of the instructor to familiarize his class with the ordinary books that are to be found in school and town libraries, and to show how to appraise and use these to the best advantage.

The range of subjects for the pro-seminaries is unlimited by anything but the preference of the instructor and the needs of the class. In English history the periods most commonly exploited fall into a three-year cycle.—The Reformation under Henry VIII and Elizabeth, The Causes of the Protestant Revolution, and The Restoration and

the Revolution of 1688-1689. In European history, the Mediaeval Period, and The Renaissance and Reformation have been used. In American history the Jacksonian Period, and The Decade 1850-1860 have recently been chosen, while a course on the decade of the Spanish War is in contemplation.

Methods have varied with instructors and periods of study. In all the pro-seminaries, the individual report, worked up by the student, and delivered formally to the class, has been the central feature of the work. But sometimes the writing out of the report has been required, sometimes forbidden. The nature of the briefer reports and the instructor's comments has varied too. Always, the most difficult problem has been to evoke real discussion from the class, and occasionally this has been successfully solved. The personnel of the class has had as much to do with this as the skill of the instructor.

At the University of Michigan these courses have repeatedly shown their right to survive. They give to the somewhat advanced student a chance to try his powers in a new way, and at the same time give him a considerable mastery of a new period. Bibliography comes naturally as an incident of the course. Methods of teaching work themselves out through example, and horrible example, while the instructor, during the half-year, is able to illustrate to the class nearly every fault likely to appear in actual teaching. The pro-seminaries are not meant to produce that mastery of the sources that is the ideal of seminary instruction, but are intended to give the student practice in a new field, facts in a new period, and facility in handling the elementary problems that are the constant occupation of the secondary teacher or the lay student of history.

Use of Sources in History Teaching

BY HENRY W. ELSON, PH.D., LITT.D.

A great object of education, as a result of the oft-mentioned mental development, is to induce correct thinking, to learn to adjust oneself to one's environment, to put oneself in harmony with the universe, i. e., with natural law and social surroundings, and thus to bring about conditions that will enable one to make the most of life. To become a correct thinker one must have correct knowledge, and must have so developed one's mind by study as to use correct judgment in the appraising of the value of facts.

But truth rather than facts is the goal. Truth is the sum of all facts, or the correct deduction from facts. Facts as a rule are useful only when they help us to get at the truth. We are not in possession of all facts, and therefore we can at times only approximately reach the truth. There are exceptions, it is true, especially in the natural world, because of the unchangeableness of natural law. For example, water expanding into steam by means of fire produces force. This is a truth that may be demonstrated by the fact that it does so once, since natural law is invariable. We take advantage of this force to turn machinery. A fact in nature, however, may only indicate a truth without fully proving it. A hen sits on an empty nest for a month. That is a fact. It points toward a truth without proving it, or rather to several truths, viz., that in the animal world there is an instinctive impulse to propagating the species; second, that the instinct is blind and utterly devoid of intelligence; third, that eggs may be hatched in this way. It is true that one lone hen sitting on an empty nest is not enough to demonstrate these truths; but if all hens do the same thing under similar conditions, we may be sure that the principle is established.

Take a human example. A wild tribe of men is found to have a religion. This is a fact indicating, but not proving, that all races of men are religious and that religion is natural and instinctive in man. But when the further facts are added, that all classes of men, in every stage of civilization, from the earliest historic times to the present, have been found to be religious, the truth may be said to be demonstrated that man is a religious animal, that religion is ipso facto, instinctive in man, that it is part of his being. Herein, then, permit me to add aside, lies the one unanswerable proof of the divine reality of religion. Nature never lies, far as we know. Nature has made man religious. Religion must therefore be truth. If a particular religion is based on superstition, it is like the hen sitting on an eggless nest. In either case it is a groping after truth, and is an unmistakable index that the truth lies somewhere in that direction. On the other hand, if the keeping of eggs warm for some weeks was *not* the way to bring chicks into existence, and still the hen persisted in doing what I have referred to, nature herself would be false. But, as far as we know, Nature never lies, and if she is true in everything else, is it conceivable that in this one thing—implanting religion in man's soul—she has been false and mendacious?

This line of reasoning may be applied to any search for truth through the observation of facts—historic truth, for example.

Historic truth is reached only through innumerable historic facts, pointing from many angles, and our knowledge of these is not scientifically precise. A right knowledge of history is therefore difficult of attainment.

The most interesting and important of all studies is the study of humanity. We

begin this study unconsciously before we enter the kindergarten and we continue it to the last day that we live. History is more than a record of the past; it is a study of the human life of an age preceding our own. By studying historic characters we know our fellow men the better, for human nature, though infinite in the multiplicity of its manifestations, is in its basal principles, as changeless as natural law. History, it may be further said, is a culture study, and in that respect is second only to literature.

History is like a coral growth. Every generation of men is built up on the achievements of the preceding. The civilization of the present rests entirely on the past. There are few things, indeed, that we use in our everyday life for which we are not indebted to the past. If you sit down to write a letter, the pen you use, the chair on which you sit, and the clothes you wear are the product of machinery that took centuries to develop, and the alphabet you use is the inheritance of thousands of years. If you read a poem or study science, you are simply gathering up the wisdom of the past. The poem may have been written yesterday, but the poet himself is a product of the past.

Man's mental powers have not grown or developed in historic times. We are no greater than were our ancestors. We live more comfortably than they only because we have added to what they bequeathed us. Each generation adds a little to what it receives from the past, and thus the conditions of the present rest on the accumulated inheritance from the ages. Were it possible to erase or destroy the past, man would be reduced to the lowest state of savagery, to the condition of the lower animals—without tools, or clothing, or lan-

guage, or traditions. So much for the importance of the study of history.

I must get to my specific subject—the use of the source method in teaching history. And here arises the main question, Which is the more important, the acquisition of historic truth, or the method used in acquiring it?

In recent years there has been a great tendency toward placing method above acquisition in teaching. That is, what a pupil actually acquires is of secondary importance as compared with the processes by which he comes by his knowledge. There is no doubt that in some of the natural sciences this theory will hold good. In laboratory work the information gained is of less importance perhaps than the method, the processes by which it is gained. But will this hold good in the study of history? In my opinion it will not. The new method simply means that history should be taught largely if not chiefly through the sources; that is, by constantly taking a class back to the sources. The historian must go to the fountains, it is true, and college classes should be led to them frequently; but high school classes only occasionally.

For two reasons I would not use sources very extensively in high school history work. First, it retards the progress and in a given time less history can be acquired. We have noted the vast importance of the study of history. It follows, then, that every pupil in the schools should acquire as much history as possible.

Second, the pupils have little discriminating judgment in appraising the value of the sources, and often the same is true of the teacher. The historian, on the other hand, is assumed to be a man of ripe scholarship, and of discriminating judgment. He does more than make a record of history; he interprets it. If he is worth anything, his judgment, after years of investigation in this particular field, is far superior to that of the high school teacher, to say nothing of the pupils. I say, then, that the high school should depend chiefly on the labors of the professional historians. They will get more work done, and better work, because of the better judgment of the historians. The man who insists on catching his own fish for his table instead of buying them from the professional fisherman, may often have a scanty breakfast. He goes to the sources.

We must have some faith in the judgment and good intentions of the historian, most of our happiness rests on faith—faith in our fellow men. We trust our doctor when we are ill, and make no pretense of investigating his sources. We purchase and use our food and drugs on faith. If we fear adulteration, we pass pure food laws and hire experts to go to the sources and investigate for us. We make no pretense of doing this for ourselves. Let the teacher of the secondary school remember that a great majority of the pupils will never get

a higher education, that their time should be employed to the best possible advantage, and that one great historic truth of world-wide significance, properly impressed on their minds, is worth far more than all they can gain by months of plodding research among the sources.

Here is an example or two: When I start with a class in modern European history, I impress on them that the greatest fact in modern history is the evolution of democracy. Were I to name the greatest thing in world history in the past hundred and fifty years, it would not be the invention of the steam engine, or the telegraph, or the coming of the railroads, or the electric light, or all these combined; it would be the growth of constitutional government in continental Europe. Why? Because it paved the way for individualism, and the hope of modern progress rests on individualism. How many Shakespeares and Franklins and Edisons lived and died unknown in the middle ages, never having learned to read? Modern government opens the way for the individual to make the best of himself; it recognizes self-ownership. The secret of modern progress lies in the fact that the individual is given a chance, and that we encourage our Roger Bacons and Galileos instead of putting them in prison.

Again, why does Abraham Lincoln fill so great a place in the world's heart? Because he happened to be the most conspicuous figure in this mighty world movement for liberty, for the movement included the abolition of slavery in all lands. Why was the invention of printing and of gunpowder more important than the foreign wars of Charles V or the multiple marriages of Henry VIII? Because it was these, gunpowder and printing, that unhorsed the feudal lord and awakened the peasant to self-consciousness.

Such deductions the school boy will not get by original research among the sources, however deeply he delves or perspiringly he toils.

May I not be misunderstood. I do not advocate for a moment the disuse of all sources. Even in the grammar school grades I would have the children read the Declaration of Independence, the speech of Logan of the Mingoes, excerpts from Webster's great speech in 1830, Lincoln's Gettysburg address, and various other like selections. When studying the Indians, I would have stone hatchets and arrow-heads on exhibition, and have the children speculate about them to their heart's content. We would visit Indian mounds and famous historic places, by picture and imaginary tours, if too far to go in person. This is a pure source work, far as it goes.

In the high school I would do still more of the same kind of work. I would even take the class to the workshop of the historian, in imagination, and show how he does his work, how he delves and searches and sifts and puts together; but not with

a view of leading them to believe that they could do the work as well as he does. At the same time I would show the impossibility of expecting the historian to be correct in all his statements. I would throw doubt on this and that and stimulate investigation, but not at the expense of the regular class work. As I would take a class to the workshop of the historian, in like manner I would take a class into a coal mine or a cotton mill, for the purpose of seeing how coal is mined and how cotton fabrics are produced, as a part of their education, and not with a view of training them to go to the original sources for their fuel and their clothing.

In college classes I would give still more attention to source work, would even send a class now and then to the library to work out a hard problem without giving them a hint as to how to go about it. But except in the case of graduates who have chosen to become specialists in history, I would make source work in college classes secondary to the regular class work in which the main reliance is on the deductions of the experts.

THE MASSACRE OF ST. BARTHOLOMEW.

The frontispiece this month is a reproduction of an illustration in Prof. James Westfall Thompson's recent work, "The Wars of Religion in France, 1559-1576," published by the University of Chicago Press, which will be reviewed in the next number of the magazine.

Prof. Thompson describes the picture as follows:

The illustration is taken from a picture by François Du Bois of Amiens (died 1584 at Geneva). The original, in the Museum Urland at Lausanne, measures three and one-half by five feet. In the middle of the picture Coligny is being thrown out of the window, below which stand the dukes of Guise and Aumale and the bastard Angoulême. Teligny, the admiral's son-in-law is trying to escape over the roof. In the background is the Louvre, with Pilles being beset in the doorway. The bodies of Bricquemault and Cavagnies are hanging from the gibbet in the street. On the hill-top in the right of the picture the gibbet of Montfaucon is seen. On the left bank of the Seine some Huguenots are escaping by the Porte de Nesles—Montgomery is the man on horseback outside the gate. The windmill stands on Mont Sainte Geneviève.

HISTORY IN THE SUMMER SCHOOLS.

The University of North Dakota offers courses by Prof. O. G. Libby in methods for history teachers, and in European and United States History.

Tulane University, New Orleans, offers courses by Prof. U. B. Phillips in the History of the South, and of the United States, 1760-1815; Miss Riggs will give courses in European and Louisiana History.

Prof. R. E. Brooks offers at the University of Georgia, Athens, courses in American, Ancient and local Georgia history.

An Undergraduate Course in History

In Columbia University

BY PROFESSOR JAMES THOMSON SHOTWELL.

The arrangement of the courses in History in Columbia and Barnard Colleges is partly to be explained by the general regulations covering the work for the degree of A. B., and partly by the attempt of the History Department to offer a systematic group of courses which will cover in one way or another practically all the larger movements in the evolution of European civilization. The candidate for the degree in Columbia must take certain introductory and general courses, one in each of the main disciplines of college work, e. g.: Mathematics, French or German, Latin or Greek, Philosophy, Chemistry or Physics, etc. In this group of prescribed courses, the History Department offers a course on General History, which must be taken by all students who do not enter college with advanced standing in entrance examinations. As the number who succeed in passing this advanced examination is almost infinitesimal—one or two in four or five years—practically all students take History A, as the course is called. It therefore becomes the foundation for all that follows, and the department is obliged to see to it that such a course, forced upon it by the exigencies of a uniform curriculum, should fit well into the rest of the work in history, and not affect adversely the elective courses, which are open to the competition of all kinds of attractions, from Zoology to Music.

The courses of the department, as a whole, are arranged in a double sequence. The prescribed course—History A—is open to freshmen but is generally taken in the sophomore year. Immediately following it, comes a group of courses especially designed for juniors, but open to all who have passed History A. Of these there is one in Ancient History, one in English History, one in Modern European History and one in American History. There is also provision for similar work in Mediaeval History in connection with a more advanced course in that subject. After this cycle of courses come those which are open to seniors in college, and to specially qualified juniors, but which are also attended by graduate students, and are sometimes more graduate than undergraduate in character. Here again, Ancient, Mediaeval, Modern, English and American History are all represented, sometimes by one course, sometimes by two courses, alternately every other year—as for example English History to 1688 one year and from 1688 the next,—and sometimes by two or more courses covering different aspects of the period, as in Modern European and American History. As these courses are fairly well articulated with those in Politics and other departments closely connected with History, the student

who graduates from Columbia College has the opportunity to choose widely and to work intensively where his interests draw him in history.

Although there is considerable variety in the method of instruction in these courses, in general those in each group—junior courses, senior courses, etc.—tend to have a common standard and similar methods. The subject matter becomes narrower in the more advanced courses, the field more restrained, the study more intensive and the method more and more of emancipation from text books or secondary material and of practice in research. For example, the student who wishes to specialize in Modern European History begins with the course in general history, the next year he takes a course in the history of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the next year he may take either an analysis of the period from 1815 to 1848 or from 1848 to 1870 or a course on the social movements of the middle of the century, or some other similar detailed piece of work. This last group he may also divide so as to take some of it as a graduate student. It is of course possible as well for him to take the junior course in Ancient or American History in his senior year. There is however an informal departmental ruling that the advanced courses in any branch shall always be prefaced, both by the prescribed general course, and by the general survey of the particular field—ancient, modern, etc.—in which the advanced course lies.*

This triple hierarchy of work rests upon a foundation which has been the object of much criticism—a single course in general history. Anyone can prove that a course in general history covers too much ground to be given with profit in a single year. But as the course has now been in operation about twelve years, and the graduating classes have frequently voted that it is the most valuable course of their college career, the critic finds himself at sea. Moreover it is upon the success of this course that much of the subsequent work of the department depends, and the usefulness of the training here received shows itself in all that follows. When a student in an advanced class shows marked inability to take notes or organize his material, the professor is as a rule correct in assuming that by some means the training of History A has been evaded.

The success of the general course is due partly to the fact that it is not clogged to the sticking point with details which naturally come in later courses, and partly to the recasting of the data furnished by the text-book into a new perspective

*The purely graduate courses are omitted in this review.

indicated by a syllabus which has been prepared especially for the course.

The main aim of the course is to furnish a clear perspective of history. This cannot be gained unless there is a great elimination of the unimportant. That is not so simple a task as it may seem. One cannot simply cut and slash a straight path through the tangled past. Such a process of simplification too often reduces the story to the barren outline of a monkish chronicle, lacking those vital touches of the incidental which give the first charm to history. The things eliminated must be those which cast no essential light on what is retained; so that the topics which are left are not stranded alone—intelligible only as a sort of algebraic formula, to be learned by heart. They must have enough of their environment to make them interesting and vital. They must stand out both as essential parts of the whole perspective and also as convincingly important on their own showing. It is on this principle that the syllabus of History A has arranged, grouped, and omitted events and men. A definite synthesis is always in mind; the narrative is not carried helplessly along a chronological stream, but is checked and guided into a series of topics, each of which is sufficiently developed to make it worth while. For instance there is a hurried glance at Greek history. In it there is no attempt to take up the *details* of the Athenian constitution, nor of the Peloponnesian war. There was a time when no survey of Greek history would have been even respectable without these priceless facts. History A—and its students—rejoice in their unrespectability. It was, and still is, possible to spend a year following Brasidas or the controversies over the recent theories as to the work of Solon, and to carry away a less clear appreciation of what Greece stands for in the world's history than by spending one week definitely on that topic. In Modern History it was once considered essential to know the projects of partition preceding the war of the Spanish Succession, while the students, weary of Nimwegen and Ryswick, etc., failed to see the perspective of Utrecht. In History A, Utrecht is almost a sole survivor. It would be impossible to do more than indicate the elimination of detail like this. While radical it is not indiscriminate, but planned so as to leave clearer and not less definite the outlines of those epochs which are taken up. In the determination of the problem thus raised, the instructors have had the help of the suggestive comments of Professor Robinson, who has long been advocating the possibility of remaking the content of the history we teach by a more thoughtful

choice of the things to be omitted and those to be retained.

The care in deciding on the subject matter of the course has a further good result in preventing the students from memorizing in parrot-like fashion, a series of events which bear no relation to anything else and will therefore be thrown off the brain like so much dead weight when examination is over—if not before. No text book can be found which fits the course, so the students must—with the aid of a slight syllabus, which has little in it but suggestive headings—choose and rearrange the material they find until it fits the perspective of the course. The preparation of every lesson thus involves both analysis and synthesis, to which a large notebook bears witness.

The course is given by instructors who meet the class in as small groups as possible—twenty-five to thirty students—three times a week, holding private consultations as well. The class-room work is nearly all in the form of recitation. There are quizzes every two weeks or oftener. Papers, and especially maps, are handed in frequently. Historical geography is receiving more and more attention, since few who come to college seem to have had enough Geography to be of any use to them. Rome has been situated, by one of my students, in the fertile valley of the Tiber and Euphrates! It is planned to pay even more attention to this in future. Dates are not made too great a burden, and the chronological placing of events is secured rather by a correla-

tion of narratives than by any arbitrary insistence upon numerals. It is believed that dates may be treated in the same manner as events, only there are still more of them to pass into official oblivion with the sanction of the instructor. Those which are retained, however, are insisted upon; and, in order to insure a careful study of the chronological setting large charts are prepared by the students, containing comparative surveys of the history of various countries and of the general division of thought and culture. These are handed in for inspection as well. By means of such exercises, all carefully built on the time basis, instead of the topical as in the syllabus and note books, the material of the course is thus worked over twice in quite different ways—both of them again different from the statement of the textbook.

This method of instruction entails a great deal of work upon the part of the teachers. There are the quiz papers every two weeks, the essays, reports, charts, etc. None of this can be slighted. The students know almost by instinct when their papers are examined carefully and when not. The moment any part of the machinery is not working effectively, the class responds by slighting that part. It must be remembered that History A is a prescribed course, taken against their will by a considerable number of the students. Moreover it is necessary for the teacher to know each student personally. Once or twice in the past when

there were not enough instructors to secure this personal contact and lectures rather than recitations were given in the classroom; the course declined in value. A clever but unscrupulous student could copy his notes from those of another, steal paragraphs from books in the reading-room for his essays, gather a fair smattering of facts from the lecture and by working a few days before the final examination, or a few hours before a quiz, pass the course. There are about two hundred and seventy-five students in the class and he might escape detention. But now with our smaller sections and the personal interviews with instructors, there is no longer a royal—or athletic—road to learning.

It may be said, in closing, that the discipline of History A is one in logic as well as in history, that the ideal before the teacher is not simply to crowd a mass of facts into defenceless brains, but to develop judgment, system, a critical point of view and some intelligent initiative upon the part of those who are too often amassing facts for facts' sake, because some one set them the unintelligent task. There is, as well, the widening of experience by a touch with those things of the past which in some obvious way play upon the present. The memory is being stored with things worth while. There are still points open to criticism; but of some of these, at least, the instructors are aware, and thus the basis of further improvement is already in evidence.

Training the History Teacher

Observation Work and Practice Teaching

BY NORMAN MACLAREN TRENHOLME, PROFESSOR OF THE TEACHING OF HISTORY,
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While it is undoubtedly true that ability to teach history well can come only as the fruit of actual experience in the class room, yet there are more or less effective ways and means by which history teachers can be trained. These methods are either theoretical or practical or, best of all, both theoretical and practical. It is the purpose of this paper to describe and discuss the use of two very effective ways of supplementing theoretical courses of a general and special character by practical work in connection with high school teaching.

Preparation and Equipment for Observation Work.

Let us suppose that the would-be history teachers have had the usual preparatory work in normal school, college or university in the subject matter of high school history, also that they have had some work in the theory and practice of teaching, but have not had any actual contact with the high school class room with its many problems of organization and presentation. To get such contact without actually teaching the

class is the object in view in having the students do observation work. Briefly defined, such work consists of visiting and carefully observing the conduct of class work by experienced or already well-trained teachers. To be effective, observation work must be prepared for by a careful study of the principles of class recitation and the organization of the lesson. The instructor who is in charge of the course in the Teaching of History should prepare his students for observation work by having them study and follow out certain directions upon which they will be expected to base the report of the results of their visit to each class. The following is a specimen set of directions based on the organization of the recitation as described in a previous article in this series:

Department of History, School of Education of the University of Missouri.

Directions and questions for observation work in history.

I. Recitation on the previous lesson:

- (1) How was the previous lesson treated? Was the reviewing mainly

done by the teacher or did the students contribute their share?

(2) What points in the previous lesson were particularly emphasized? How was the relation and significance of events handled? Criticise favorably and unfavorably this part of the exercises?

(3) About how much of the period was given up to this recitation?

II. Study of the new lesson:

(1) What relation did the new lesson have to the previous recitation? If there was no apparent relation, how was the new lesson introduced?

(2) Give the types of questions asked by the teacher, noting especially those that called for thought rather than for mere facts? What proportion of the questions were "direct questions?" Did the students seem to understand and follow the teacher's questions? Give examples.

(3) Compare the relative amount of talking and explaining done by the teacher and the students? Were the duller students neglected by the teacher? What methods, if any, were used in the case of diffident, dull, or unprepared members of the class?

(4) How was attention or interest shown by the class (voluntary discus-

sion, questions, objections, etc.)? In case of the lack of either attention or interest, or both, what seemed to you the cause or causes?

(5) What was the leading problem discussed in the new lesson? What were the main points made in developing this problem? Criticise the discussion from the viewpoint of application of topic to present conditions? (This last question not to apply rigidly in connection with Ancient History.)

(6) How was the summary, if any, made at the close of the study of the new lesson? Did it seem to you to touch on the vital points in the lesson?

(7) Was the time well distributed so that the lesson was well rounded?

III. Assignment of next day's work:

(1) What was the nature of the assignment (a) for the recitation on the previous lesson? (b) for study of the new lesson?

(2) What special form or forms did these assignments take—(a) problems? (b) topics? (c) detailed questions? (d) pages? Was collateral reading assigned, and, if so, in what books and how much?

(3) How much time was given to the assignment of next day's work?

IV. Management:

(1) Was the class room neat, orderly, and well ventilated?

(2) What maps, charts, pictures, etc., did you notice?

(3) Was the behaviour of the class good, and, if not, what criticisms seem to you just, and what causes do you assign for the poor discipline?

(4) What attention, if any, was paid by the teacher to mistakes in English (grammar, pronunciation and orthography) on the part of the students? Did the teacher commit any such mistakes? Be specific.

(5) What impression did you get of the general management of the class room work as regards proportion of time given to the different parts of the exercise.

If directions such as the above are carefully studied and the student observer's report is worked out carefully from notes taken during the recitation observed, the result cannot fail to be of benefit. Actual contact with class room teaching will have been brought about though in a somewhat objective way. Such contact, however, is immensely valuable as compared with no contact at all.

Opportunities for Observation Work.

In the absence of a special training school for high school teachers opportunities are afforded for observation work by the public high school that should be taken advantage of. The average superintendent or principal is not likely to object to an occasional visitor, especially one with a serious purpose, and arrangements can easily be made for carrying a series of visits in the different history classes. This method has been followed in some places with good results. The University of Wisconsin has made use of the Madison high school for purposes of observation work with satisfactory results. At Chicago the schools affiliated with the University of Chicago are used. The University of Missouri maintains a large high school for training purposes in connection with its school of education, and the ten history classes conducted there afford excellent opportunity for observation work, and reports based on such work are required in connection with each course on the teaching of special subjects.

Practice Teaching and Its Value.

Even more valuable, however, than observation work is high school practice teach-

ing. Unfortunately opportunities for such teaching are not provided in connection with the training of teachers at most institutions, and it cannot be expected that practice teaching will be allowed in connection with public high schools. Some institutions have met the difficulty by establishing a special high school in connection with the training of teachers, and thus provide easily accessible observation work and excellent practice teaching for juniors and seniors in the Teachers' College or School of Education. Under such conditions, it is possible to supervise in a close and efficient manner the lesson plans and recitation work of teachers in training, and to correct such faults as are likely to appear in the early stages of teaching. While such work is apprentice work it has almost all the value of actual teaching and the additional training involved in class criticism work and training in the organization of lesson plans. At some universities, like Wisconsin, the plan is adopted of sending students out into the public schools of the state to teach for a time as a part of their course of training. This plan, while it has the merit of bringing the student into contact with actual conditions does not appear to me to have the same educational value as when actual teaching is done under careful and constant supervision. However, either plan will have good results in connection with the training of history teachers, and where facilities for laboratory work along teaching lines do not exist in close connection with the school of education use should be made of the public schools whenever suitable arrangements can be made for observation work and practice teaching. Any effort in this direction will certainly be worth while.

Recent History

The Hague Tribunal, France, Germany, Spain, Belgium and Holland

BY JOHN HAYNES, PH.D., DORCHESTER HIGH SCHOOL, BOSTON, MASS.

The Hague Tribunal.

The growth of the influences of the Hague Tribunal is one of the most significant of recent international matters. The United States has taken a very creditable part in building up this influence by its willingness to submit to this court, questions in which it has been a party. By far the most important of these questions is the longstanding dispute between our country on one side and Newfoundland and Canada on the other, over the fisheries question. Early in 1909 this question was definitely submitted to this international body and its decision will give an authoritative interpretation to various parts of the treaty of 1818, whose meaning has been disputed. In May, 1909, the Hague Tribunal gave its decision on the matters referred to it by France and Germany, growing out of

troubles at Casablanca. The decision favored the French contention, that the German consulate had no right to protect deserters from the French forces. The important thing is not so much how particular cases may be decided but that every dispute peacefully decided by the Tribunal strengthens the cause of international arbitration.

France.

A burning question of the day in France is whether government employees shall be permitted to belong to labor unions. This is illegal and the Ministry and the Chamber of Deputies maintain that the law should remain as it is. In spite of the government position many public employees have joined the General Confederation of Labor, and in March, 1909, there was a general strike of employees of the Post

Office, which in France manages the telegraph and telephone. The strike was precipitated by a new rule, setting aside seniority as the basis for promotions. Communication was paralyzed and the employees did not return till the government had agreed that there should be no punishment of the strikers, and intimated that the official of the Postal Department, most obnoxious to the workers would be transferred to another department. The most serious question in the country still remains whether the government of the land or the General Confederation of Labor is to be supreme. The Confederation is really a revolutionary body whose leaders openly declare their purpose to make their strike committee superior to the Cabinet. To force the recognition of the right of servants of the state to organize, the General

Confederation has endorsed the practice called *sabotage*, that is the secret spoiling of the product on which a laborer is employed. In some cases this is carried so far as to endanger the lives of the public.

In July 1909, without previous intimation, the announcement was made that the Clémenceau Ministry had fallen. This ministry, which had lasted somewhat less than three years, had held power longer than any other ministry of the Third Republic. The change was brought about by an adverse vote of the Chamber, which was caused by their disapproval of language used by the Premier in reference to M. Delcassé during a debate on naval affairs. It soon appeared that the defeat was a purely personal one for M. Clémenceau, and that the policy of the government would remain unchanged. M. Briand, a moderate Socialist, became Premier. This does not mean that the Socialists are in power in France, for no party has a majority in the Chamber. Each prime minister makes up a Cabinet from various parties, which for the time being act together and form a so-called "*bloc*." The Socialists were already in the *bloc* which supported Clémenceau and M. Briand was one of his cabinet.

The new Premier announced that his policy, like that of his predecessor, would include a reform of the navy, which recent investigation has shown to need drastic reorganization, the enactment of a progressive income tax and a working man's pension scheme. The last named of these policies has been enacted into law (April 1910) and is one of the most far-reaching acts of recent French legislation. The contributory system, similar to the German and unlike the British system, has been adopted. Besides the countries already mentioned, Austria, Belgium, Denmark and Australia already have some form of old age pensions, paid wholly or partly from the national treasury. In every other advanced country of the world the subject is being agitated.

Recent scandals with reference to the liquidation of property taken from the Church, have not materially injured the influence of the Cabinet because of the frank and courageous way in which M. Briand has dealt with the matter. In recent months the government has been sharply attacked by the Catholic Hierarchy, chiefly on account of the text books used in the public schools. Certain books have been interdicted and a public declaration has been issued by the bishops, practically directing Catholic parents to withdraw their children from public schools. An American Protestant clergyman permanently resident at Paris is of the opinion that the authorities have gone to unjustifiable extremes in recent changes in the wording of text-books.

The general election, held on April 24, 1910, while it left many districts to have a second balloting according to the French

law which requires a majority to elect a member of the Chamber of Deputies, indicated plainly that the present Cabinet will be strongly upheld.

Germany.

The great question of the day in Germany is how to meet the constantly growing expenditures of the nation. Instead of paying her current expenses out of current income as every country should, except in extraordinary circumstances, she has been piling up a huge debt in time of peace. The real difficulty is not the poverty of the country, for Germany has never been so prosperous. Nor is it heavy taxation, for other countries are much more heavily taxed. The trouble is that the sources of revenue so far used by the central government are inadequate and attempts to draw upon new sources encounter the opposition of the local units and certain influential classes, chief of which are the agrarians, or landed gentry, who are the favored class of the country. In 1909 Chancellor von Bülow proposed a new finance measure, a chief feature of which was a progressive inheritance tax, but the bill was defeated. The Chancellor, who had held his position for nearly ten years with great credit to himself, thereupon resigned. This action was considered by many as a tacit acceptance of the principle of ministerial responsibility, which has never been recognized in Germany though urged by the liberal parties in the Reichstag. This principle may perhaps in time become as firmly fixed in the customs of the country as it is now in the majority of European lands.

The new Chancellor Dr. von Bethmann-Hollweg has recently (April 1910) proposed the use for imperial purposes of a tax on the unearned increment of land values. Such a tax is already commonly in use in German cities and has just been introduced into Great Britain by the enactment into law of the Lloyd-George Budget.

In Prussia the voting for members of the Diet has been indirect and the voters have been divided into three classes on the basis of taxable wealth. This arrangement has of course given the power in legislation to the wealthy and in recent years an agitation, at times breaking out into rioting, has been going on in favor of direct election and equal power for each voter.

In February 1910 Dr. von Bethmann-Hollweg, acting as Prussian Minister of State, introduced a bill providing for the abolition of indirect voting, but retaining such a classification of voters as to prevent any real popular control. This bill has called out indignant protests and caused a renewal of agitation. It will doubtless become a law but of course the agitation will continue.

Spain.

Since the middle of 1909 Spain has seen troublous times. In July of that year laborers who were working on a railway

near Melilla were attacked by natives. This town on the Riff coast of Morocco has been a Spanish possession since the time of Ferdinand and Isabella. The attack upon the laborers led Spain into a series of costly and troublesome military operations and she still struggles with a difficult situation.

At home many people felt that the government was spending treasure and blood merely to help out men who had mining concessions near Melilla, and the call for reinforcements occasioned riots in Barcelona. These were violently anti-clerical and resulted in the burning of churches and monasteries. In October Senor Ferrer, a prominent educator of republican and anti-clerical principles, was summarily tried by court martial and executed for inciting acts of violence. This event led to demonstrations by anarchists and militant socialists in London, Vienna, Paris and other cities. When the Cortes opened Senor Moret, a Liberal Leader, attacked the Maura ministry for mismanagement of the Riff campaign and lack of wisdom in dealing with domestic difficulties. The Liberals regarded the military trial of Ferrer as a political blunder, though, as the writer thinks rightly they do not dispute the essential justice of what was done. As a result of the debate the Ministry resigned and Senor Moret became Premier. Internal dissensions in his Cabinet caused his fall in February 1910. The new cabinet under Senor Canalejas is radical and anti-clerical. It favors immediate repudiation of the Concordat between Spain and the Vatican, with a view to the early separation of Church and State.

Belgium.

In December 1909 Leopold II, King of the Belgians, closed his reign of forty years, which was one of marked success from the point of view of material prosperity. The credit for this largely belongs to the King who was a man of extraordinary business ability. But his reputation is darkened by the vices of his private life and the harsh government of the Congo, for which he was responsible. He was succeeded by his nephew Albert I, who is intelligent and liberal in his ideas and well read in questions of social reform. He promises to make a very good ruler, and measures already taken by the government since his accession promise substantial reforms in the Congo.

Holland.

Last year a daughter was born to Wilhelmina, Queen of the Netherlands. This event was of much more importance than a similar event would have been in most countries, for before the birth of the Princess the Queen was the last direct representative of the House of Orange. In case of her death without leaving a child the throne would go to a German prince, an event much dreaded by the Dutch, who are fearful of German aggression and of annexation to the great Teutonic Empire.

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A Year's Progress

A feeling of pride may properly be entertained by history teachers in viewing the advance made by their profession during the school year 1909-1910. It has been a year of progress in many respects, most notably, perhaps, in the strengthening of associations of history teachers, the building up of a deeper *esprit de corps*, and the emphasis upon conscious endeavor as part of a history teacher's duty.

Foremost in the events of the year stand out the Twenty-fifth Anniversary Meetings at New York, in which the American Historical Association, the American Economic Association, the American Political Science Association, and many auxiliary societies took part. While these associations retain in their membership many persons not connected with the teaching profession, it is true, particularly of the historical and the political science associations, that their ideals are largely the ideals of teachers of these subjects. Their activities, while shared by others, have been directed mainly by the scholars in the teaching profession. History teachers the country over may therefore be proud of the record made by these associations during the past twenty-five years; a record which was so well epitomized by the New York meetings. Scholars from Europe and America, business men from the metropolis, and educational thinkers from all parts of the country met to honor the work and workers of these societies.

The co-operative work of committees of history teachers has produced during the year many reports of value. Of these the most noteworthy is the Report of the Committee of Eight upon the Teaching of History in the Elementary Schools. Other reports are the preliminary report of the Committee of Five of the American Historical Association, and the bibliographical reports edited by Prof. W. J. Chase for the North Central History Teachers' Association and that edited by a committee of the Middle States Association. Besides these, a committee of the New England Association reported upon a secondary school course in civil government; a New York City committee began work on the same subject; a New Jersey committee perfected their syllabus on high school history; and similar action was taken in Illinois and in Louisiana. In addition to these pretentious evidences of committee work, there were scores of local committees at work upon the problems of subject-matter, of method, and of local history. In no way has the year shown a greater advance than in these co-operative enterprises.

The year 1909-1910 will go down in the history of historical pedagogy as the year of "aids to visualization." Beginning with the paper by Professor Henry Johnson, in the Teachers' College Record for the move-

ment received a strong impetus from the exhibit planned and collected by Professors Johnson and Shotwell, at Teachers' College, in December. From this the subject was carried into the New York meeting of the Middle States Association in March; and in April it was discussed at the North Central Association meeting at Chicago. In the same month the New England Association, under the direction of Prof. A. I. Andrews, exhibited a similar collection of illustrative material. In many parts of the country the account of the exhibit at Teachers' College given in the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE was made the basis of discussion and of improved equipment of history departments.

In the publishing field the year has not been noteworthy. Two new text-books upon American history have appeared, and a new edition of an older one has been published. Many works fitted for supplementary reading in history classes in the elementary schools have been produced. Perhaps the most marked feature of the year is the continued publication of source-books, not only in pure history, but in the allied fields of government and economic history. A notable attempt at the construction of a source-history of the United States was, probably, the most unique feature in the text-book world, while the Documentary History of American Industrial Society was the most pretentious publication of the year.

The activity of the Historical Department of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, under the able direction of Dr. Jameson has been conducted along the lines already laid down. The examination, the listing, and in some cases the calendaring of documents relating to American history in foreign archives, both European and American, has continued; and in addition a report has been prepared upon the existing collections in America for the study of the history of Protestant religious denominations.

It is not possible to describe the year's work conducted under the direction of the several committees and commissions of the American Historical Association. Comment should be made, however, upon the effort to produce with the English historical workers, a joint bibliography upon English History; and upon the continuing activities of the Public Archives Commission.

In all the year's work, whether in publication or in investigation, the dominant note is co-operation; the collaboration of historians and history teachers to further the interests of their subject and to secure its proper presentation has never been carried on so successfully nor on so large a scale. The new year should reap much of the fruit from seed sown during 1909-1910.

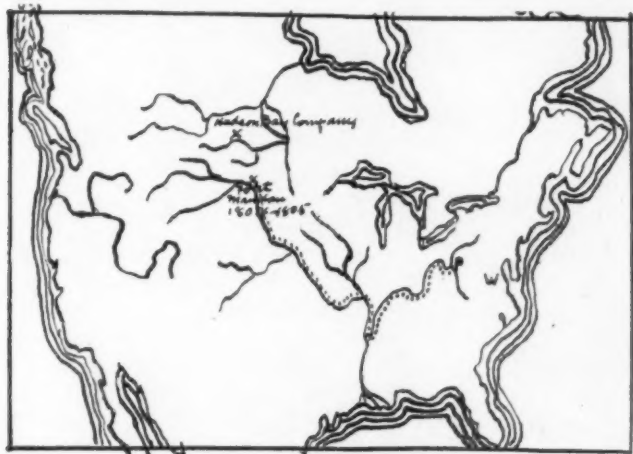
Construction Work in Elementary History Classes

Reprinted by permission from the "Atlantic Educational Journal" for April, 1910.

BY LIDA LEE TALL, SUPERVISOR OF GRAMMAR GRADES, BALTIMORE COUNTY, MARYLAND.

I. Fort Mandan

What are the means for awakening the historical sense in children? By historical sense is meant place relation, time relation, and judgment resulting from comparison of the past with the present. From this historical sense comes a conception of the institutional development of mankind. In the lower grades the aim of the teacher is to awaken the historical sense of children, and even in upper grammar grades, in the secondary schools, and in colleges, the teacher who neglects to aid the development of this sense does not understand the difficulty of the problem, and therefore, does not meet the need of the student. Professor Henry Johnson in his article on "History in the Elementary School" (November, 1909, Teachers College Record) states that some of the means of arousing this sense are local neighborhood monuments (historic houses, or places marked by tablets); casts, models, pictures, lantern slides, stereoscopes, historical albums, dramatization, and carefully graded books. It is not my purpose in the present article to discuss all of these aids, the subject being limited mainly to forts and their construction on the sand-table.



A fort appeals to the imagination of children of every age, and the fort is ever present in history, whether it be a Grecian wall on a hill-crest, a medieval castle, or a huge scientific structure of modern times.

I have never known a class that did not respond to the appeal of building Daniel Boone's fort beyond the Alleghenies, or one of La Salle's chain of forts. Any one of the latter, studied in detail with its setting, is thrilling enough to make a child long to know more of the wonderful plans and achievements of this picturesque and marvelous leader. The forts shown in this article were built by a class of teachers in training, many of whom carried this good work into their own classrooms. The story is that of the Lewis and Clark expedition; it has been told and developed, we will say, to the time of the first winter spent on the Missouri river. The class has studied:

1. The national affairs at Washington in Jefferson's administration.
2. The preparations at Pittsburg for the expedition.
3. The journey down the Ohio and the stop at Wood river to wait until spring.
4. The journey up the Missouri to Fort Mandan.

Here is a splendid chance to stop and live over with the children the hardships, dangers, and adventures of the daring men who undertook such a hazardous journey for their country. The teacher can get all the information necessary about that winter from the "Lewis and Clark Journals," in the Trail Makers' Series, Vol. I, Chapters IV, V, VI, and VII. The following excerpts are selected from this volume. The text is simple enough to be read by children

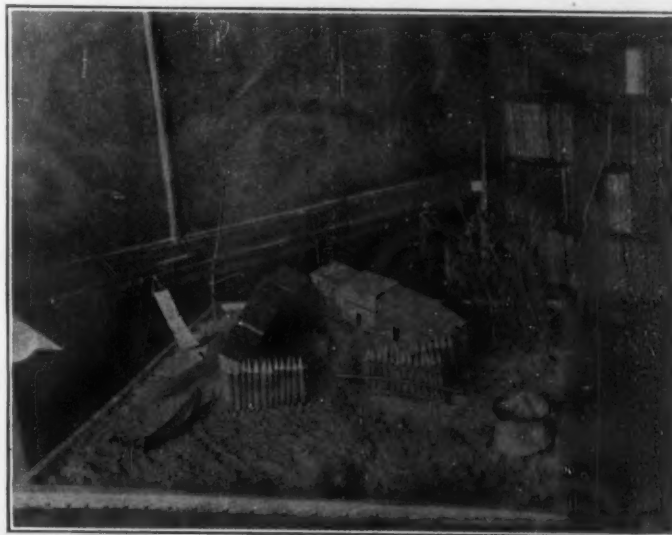
of the fifth school year and will help to show that source-material of this kind may be used with classes of children.

Wednesday, October 24.—The day was again dark and it snowed a little in the morning. At three miles we came to a point on the south, where the river by forcing a channel across a former bend has formed a large island on the north. On this island we found one of the grand chiefs of the Mandans, who with five lodges was on a hunting excursion. . . . After visiting his lodges the grand chief and his brother came on board our boat for a short time; we then proceeded and encamped on the north, at seven miles from our last night's station and below the old village of the Mandans and Ricaras. . . . The land is low and beautiful, and covered with oak and cottonwood, but has been too recently hunted to afford much game.

25th. The morning was cold and the wind gentle from the south-east; at three miles we passed a handsome high prairie on the south, and on an eminence about forty feet above the water and extending back for several miles in a beautiful plain, was situated an old village of the Mandan nation which has been deserted for many years.

26th. We set out early with a southwest wind and after putting the Ricara chief on shore to join the Mandans who were in great numbers along it, we proceeded to the camp of the grand chiefs four miles distant. Here we met a Mr. McCracken, one of the northwest or Hudson Bay Company, who arrived with another person about nine days ago to trade for horses and buffalo robes. Two of the chiefs came on board with some of their household furniture, such as earthen pots and a little corn and went on with us; the rest of the Indians following on shore. At one mile beyond the camp we passed a small creek, and at three more, a bluff of coal of an inferior quality on the south. After making eleven miles we reached an old field where the Mandans had cultivated grain last summer, and encamped for the night on the south side, about half a mile below the first village of the Mandans. . . .

Sunday, October 28, we were joined by many of the Minnetarees and Ahnahaways from above, but the wind was so violent from the southwest that the chiefs of the lower villages could not come up, and the council was deferred till tomorrow. In the meanwhile we entertained our visitors by showing them what was new to them in the boat; all which, as well our black servant, they called great medicine, the meaning of which we afterward learnt. We also consulted the grand chief of the Mandans, Black Cat, and Mr. Jesseume, as to the names, characters, etc., of the chiefs with whom we are to hold the council. . . .



Finding that we shall be obliged to pass the winter at this place, we went up the river about one and a half miles today, with a view of finding a convenient spot for a fort, but the timber was too scarce and small for our purposes. . . .

Tuesday, 30.—Captain Clark took a periogue and went up the river in search of a good wintering place, and returned after going seven miles to the lower point of an island on the north side, about one mile in length; he found the banks on the north side high, with coal occasionally, and the country fine on all sides; but the want of wood and the scarcity of game up the river, induced us to decide on fixing ourselves lower down during the winter. In the evening our men danced among themselves to the great amusement of the Indians.

Wednesday, 31.—A second chief arrived this morning with an invitation from the grand chief of the Mandans, to come to his village where he wished to present some corn to us and to speak with us. Captain Clark walked down to his village; he was first seated with great ceremony on a robe by the side of the chief, who then threw over his shoulders another robe handsomely ornamented. The pipe was then smoked with several of the old men who were seated around the chief; after some time he began his discourse, by observing that he believed what we had told him, and that they should soon enjoy peace, which would gratify him as well as his people, because they could then hunt without fear of being attacked, and the women might work in the fields without looking every moment for the enemy, and at night put off their moccasins, a phrase by which is conveyed the idea of security when the women could undress at night without fear of attack. . . .

Thursday, November 1st.—Mr. McCracken, the trader whom we found here, set out to-day on his return to the British fort and factory on the Assiniboin river, about one hundred and fifty miles from this place. He took a letter from Captain Lewis to the northwest company, inclosing a copy of the passport granted by the British minister in the United States. . . .

Friday, November 2.—. . . In the meantime Captain Clark went down with the boats three miles, and having found a good position where there was plenty of timber, encamped and began to fell trees to build our huts. Our Ricara chief set out with one Mandan chief and several Minnetaree and Mandan warriors; the wind was from the southeast, and the weather being fine a crowd of Indians came down to visit us.

Saturday 3.—We now began the building of our cabins, and the Frenchmen who are to return to St. Louis are building a periogue for the purpose. We sent six men in a periogue to hunt down the river. We were also fortunate enough to engage in our service a Canadian Frenchman, who had been with the Cheyenne Indians on the Black Mountains, and last summer descended thence by the Little Missouri. Mr. Jesseau our interpreter also came down with his squaw and children to live at our camp. In the evening we received a visit from Kagohami or Little Raven, whose wife accompanied him, bringing about sixty weight of dried meat, a robe, and a pot of meal. We gave him in return a piece of tobacco, to his wife an axe and a few small articles, and both of them spent the night at our camp. Two beavers were caught in the traps this morning.

Sunday 4.—We continued our labors; the timber which we employ is large and heavy, and chiefly consists of cottonwood and elm with some ash of an inferior size. Great numbers of the Indians pass our camp on their hunting excursions; the day was clear and pleasant, but last night was very cold and there was a white frost. . . .

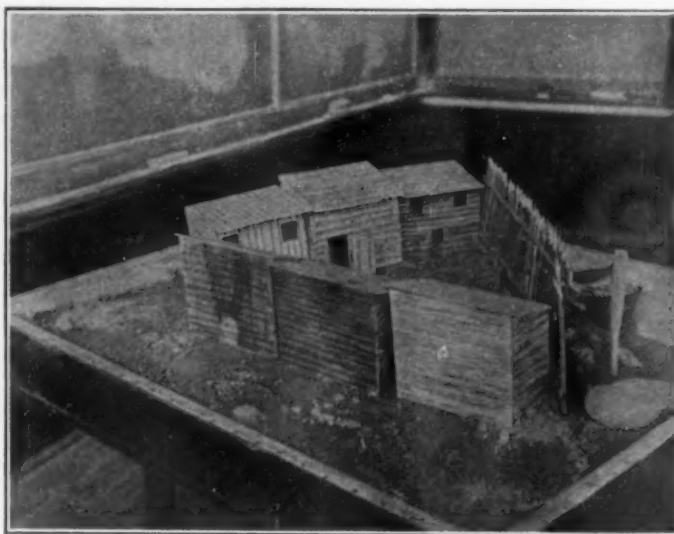
Thursday 8.—The morning again cloudy; our huts advanced very well, and we are visited by numbers of Indians who come to let their horses graze near us. . . .

November 10.—We had again a raw day, a northwest wind, but rose early in the hopes of finishing our works before the extreme cold begins. A chief who is a half Pawnee came to us and brought a present of half a buffalo, in return for which we gave him some small presents and a few articles to his wife and son; he then crossed the river in a buffalo skin canoe; his wife took the boat on her back and carried it to the village three miles off. Large

flocks of geese and brant, and also a few ducks are passing toward the south. . . .

Tuesday 13.—We this morning unloaded the boat and stowed away the contents in a storehouse which we have built. . . .

Friday 16.—We had a very hard white frost this morning, the trees are all covered with ice, and the weather cloudy. The men this day moved into the huts, although they are not finished. In the evening some horses were sent down to the woods near us in order to prevent their being stolen by the Assiniboin, with whom some difficulty is now apprehended. An Indian came down with



four buffalo robes and some corn, which he offered for a pistol, but was refused.

Monday 19.—The ice continues to float in the river, the wind high from the northwest, and the weather cold. Our hunters arrived from their excursion below, and bring a very fine supply of thirty-two deer, eleven elk, and five buffalo, all of which was hung in a smokehouse.

Tuesday 20.—We this day moved into our huts which are now completed. This place which we call Fort Mandan, is situated in a point of low ground, on the north side of the Missouri, covered with tall and heavy cottonwood. The works consist of two rows of huts or sheds, forming an angle where they joined each other; each row containing four rooms, of fourteen feet square and seven feet high, with plank ceiling, and the roof slanting so as to form a loft above the rooms, the highest part of which is eighteen feet from the ground; the backs of the huts formed a wall of that height, and opposite the angle the place of the wall was supplied by picketing; in the area were two rooms for stores and provisions. The latitude by observation is forty-seven degrees twenty-one minutes and forty-seven seconds, and the computed distance from the mouth of the Missouri sixteen hundred miles.

Now that we have all the information necessary, let us build the fort to scale. Cardboard and brown and black crayon are the necessary media. The actual measurements of each long house are fifty-six feet long, fourteen feet deep, seven feet high in front, eighteen feet high at the back. Each house is to be divided into four rooms, seven feet high, with a loft above. The two houses meet at an angle, and opposite the angle is a picket fence, the pickets eighteen feet high. The scale is one inch to four feet, which makes each cardboard house four and a half inches high at the back, one and three-quarter inches high in front, three and a half inches deep, and fourteen inches long. In the work represented in the illustration each student made a small house one-fourth of the whole, for in this way more children could participate in the fort building. A cottonwood grove at the back of the fort, a round Mandan skin boat and one or two pirogues in the river, at the front, complete the picture.

The problem that should be studied next is: How did the explorers spend that winter in the camp?

Preparation for American History Examination

BY ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PH.D.

The Purpose of a Review.

With the coming of the month of June, the minds of both teacher and pupils turn to the final examination which is to be the test of the work of the school year. The last three or four weeks of school should, therefore, be devoted to review and preparation for the test. Unlike many teachers, we are firmly convinced of the value of the examination, and we find in this final review an opportunity for doing many things which till then have been left undone. If for no other reason, the examination is valuable, because in preparing for it the student is forced to take stock of the knowledge which he has gained.

A review which is a cram is, beyond question, a vicious thing; but a review which is undertaken for the purpose of organizing and crystallizing the work of the term or of the year is perhaps the most valuable of all pedagogical exercises. In that it resembles the work which all scholars are forced to do before they sit down to write out the results of a long and tedious investigation. Till this process is undertaken, information is apt to be fragmentary and without fixed point of view; when it has been completed, all things that have been gathered fall into proper relations, and knowledge may be said to be a completed whole. For this reason we are opposed to rapid reviews, to reviews which are conducted by means of quizzes and by the study of outlines, chronological tables, and the like. Personally during the period of review, in the recitation period, we are accustomed to doing most of the work, giving the students the broad historical generalizations which have been evolved as the result of the year's work and leaving them to fill in the details upon which these generalizations are based during their study hours at home.

The Geography of United States History.

In reviewing, we begin by developing for the class the relation of geography to the history of the United States. First of all, we insist that every student must be able to draw accurately and rapidly an acceptable outline map of North America; second, that he shall be able to locate the two great mountain ranges of the continent, and the principal rivers of the eastern coast—the St. Lawrence, the Hudson, the Delaware, the rivers which flow into Chesapeake Bay. Next his attention is called to the Mississippi and its tributaries, to the Rio Grande, and finally to the Columbia River in the west. Once these physical features are learned, the student should have no difficulty in fixing the four or five great geographical facts of American history: (1) the explorations and settlements of the four European nations—the Spaniards, the French, the English, and the Dutch; (2) the changes in the map of North America which

resulted from the wars of the 17th and 18th centuries; (3) the growth of the territory of the United States from 1783 to 1898; (4) the division of the country into North and South due to legislation about slavery; (5) the economic development of the country since 1789.

History of the Colonial Period.

We are now ready for our second step in review—tracing the great forces, political, social, and economic, which determined the destiny of this land. Once more the conditions in Europe which led to the discovery and settlement of North America are discussed. Once more the class is shown the extent of territory occupied by each of the European nations and reminded of the political, social, and economic conditions which prevailed in the colonies of each. When this is done, we may proceed to analyse in detail the story of the English colonies in America. Starting with the activities of the London and the Plymouth Companies, the story of each of the thirteen colonies is traced; the grants of land, the forms of government, the social ideals, the relations of each to the others and to the Mother Country, till the history of one hundred and fifty years has been summarized and defined. In all this history, three great facts of permanent importance are to be observed: (1) the growth of representative government (which should be traced through the history of at least three or four colonies); (2) the relation of church to state in each colony; (3) the growth of colonial unions from 1643 to 1776.

Finally, in colonial history, the teacher must summarize the motives and results of the Revolution. Here we should begin by analyzing once more the questions at issue between the colonies and England—questions which may be summarized under two headings: (1) trade and navigation acts, (2) acts tending to restrict the spirit of self-government which had grown up in the colonies during one hundred and fifty years. The resistance to the Stamp Act and to the Townshend Acts, in other words, was but the climax of a movement, evidences of which are to be found throughout the entire colonial period. Then should come a rapid review of the incidents between 1765 and 1775, of the military and civil history of the Revolution, and of the provisions and results of the Treaty of 1783.

The Five Periods of United States History.

The history of the United States now begins. First as to the so-called Critical Period—the things to be emphasized here are the frame of government which preserved the union, the causes which tended to disrupt it, and finally the series of efforts which were made to remedy the weaknesses of the Union which ended in the adoption of the Constitution in 1787-1789.

Under the Constitution the history of the country falls into four periods, each approximately a generation long. In the first, the policy of the United States, both internal and external, was fixed. Internally, by the work of Hamilton and of John Marshall, the government was committed once for all to the policy of loose construction, to a liberal financial policy and to a series of internal improvements which were absolutely necessary for the development of the territory of the United States. Against this tendency, the protests of Jefferson and Madison were hurled in vain. Jefferson himself was forced to abandon his theories when in 1803 he signed the Louisiana Purchase treaty and started the country on its career of expansion, which ended only when the limits of the continent had been reached.

In foreign affairs, too, the men of the first generation fixed the policy of the nation for seventy-five years. What Washington, Adams and Jefferson began when they declared that the United States must refrain from taking part in European affairs, John Quincy Adams and Monroe finished in 1823-1824 when the Monroe doctrine was issued and became the fixed policy of the nation.

In the second generation men were busy with the problem of developing the territories west of the Alleghenies, and the student must therefore be led in review through the history of the settlement of the west and of the division of this territory between the slave and the free soil interests of the United States.

Then in 1850, began the third phase of the history under the Constitution—the war between the States. The successive stages in this struggle are too well known to need rehearsal here. Experience has shown, however, that the ten years of the Reconstruction period are the most difficult for the class to understand, and it is with these that the teacher should proceed most carefully with his class in review.

Finally comes the fourth period—the period of modern economic development, the period of the growth of the great transportation lines, of the so-called trusts, and of the great amalgamations of labor. In this period, too, the United States embarks upon a new foreign policy which leads, after the war with Spain, to the abandonment of the policy of neutrality in European affairs which had been maintained for seventy-five years.

How to Handle an Examination Paper.

Here the review ends and the teacher is ready to give his class his final instructions on how to handle the paper when it comes to the test. An analysis of examination papers shows that all questions may be grouped under one of two heads—they call either (1) for a simple narration of facts, or (2) for an opinion from the candidate

upon the significance of a series of events. An appeal to the student to use the skill which his English teachers have tried to impart is, therefore, not out of place. If the question is of the first kind, his answer should take the form of a narrative or of an exposition; if of the second, of an argument in favor of his view. Where biographies are called for, the student should be careful to cover the entire life of the man described. If comparisons are wanted, candidates should be warned that examiners are not disposed to accept two or more unrelated paragraphs upon the things to be

compared. For questions of judgment it is always most difficult to prepare. One thing only the teacher can do—he can insist that to answer such questions successfully the student must first analyze for himself—preferably on paper—the elements of the events which he intends to discuss.

As a last word, we usually give our students these half dozen or more injunctions and do everything we can to drive them home.

1. Read through the entire paper before you begin to write.

2. Select *all* the questions you are going to answer before beginning to write a word.

3. Outline (on paper) your answer to each question before you begin to write the answer out.

4. Remember that history readers are looking for *English* form—spelling, punctuation, sentence structure, paragraph structure clearness, coherence and mass.

5. Be sure that you give *all* the information asked for and nothing more.

6. Don't omit any part of a question.

7. Read your paper over and correct it before you hand it in.

European History in the Secondary School

D. C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., Editor.

THE UNIFICATION OF GERMANY.

Germany and Italy.

Much of what has been said in a previous issue about the creation of modern Italy, especially in its relation to general European development, might be applied with equal force to the present topic, the unification of Germany. Two new powers emerged in consequence of the forces set in motion in the years which followed the upheaval of 1848. Although the one took its place among the nations at a much earlier date than the other, its hopes were not destined to be fully realized until its sister state in its struggles to attain the same end, had contributed in no small measure to its ultimate success.

The problem before the teacher has been simplified by the narration of the Italian struggle. The way has already been prepared for the presentation of much that vitally concerns German unity. If the influence of Napoleon III in European politics has been kept prominently before the class in connection with the period ending in 1859, it will not be difficult to show how the events which center about 1863—when the "German question entered the stage of decision"—marked a turning point in the career of this would-be arbiter of Europe, foreshadowing his final overthrow a few years later. In this way a certain element of unity is injected into the whole period from 1859 to 1871.

The Beginnings of German Unity.

It should not be necessary to project the story of German unity so far back in the past as is the case with Italy. If the Revolution of 1848 has already been considered in its broader aspects, the events which culminated in Olmütz do not call for detailed recapitulation. Judson points out some of the lessons learned by the German patriots and statesmen as the result of the bitter experiences of those years.* These might serve as a text to introduce the later and more successful efforts in the same direction. The pages of German history, like those of Italy, are filled with disappointed hopes and blighted

aspirations. The apparent brutality of Bismarck's policy of "Blood and iron" can perhaps be better understood and appreciated if the class realize the apparent futility of the efforts put forth between 1848 and 1849. From some points of view the problem of creating a German nation was much more difficult of solution than that which confronted the makers of modern Italy. The very fact that the story is one involving diplomatic victories as well as wars makes it difficult to follow. With the Revolution of 1848 the romantic period passed for Germany. Bismarck's work may therefore not appeal to a class with the same force as that of the creators of Italy. There was to be no German Mazzini; no German Garibaldi. There was however, William I, the "Old Emperor" as he is affectionately styled, the reincarnation of that heroic figure of the Middle Ages, Frederick Barbarossa. The recounting of the legend and the reading of the famous poem by Rückert (to be found in Brandt, German Reader, page 39) will undoubtedly add much to the interest in his work and personality. The formation by Prussia of a Customs Union (Zollverein), involving some of the states of Northern Germany, should not be passed over in the discussion of this earliest epoch, as it marks one of the few steps toward the desired goal.

The Work of Bismarck.

The keynote to Bismarck's policy is struck in the following quotation from Andrews, which may serve as a basis for the discussion of the topic:

"He based his hopes upon the strength of an established monarchy which should wield a weapon of tried efficiency at a time when, a legitimate pretext having been given, and fear of interference from the Powers abroad having been removed, the problem could be settled . . . by the sword." *

In working out this idea, the first point calling for explanation is the apparent reaction which set in throughout the Prus-

sian dominions as a result of 1848 and which continued through the earlier years of Bismarck's ministry. It may be necessary to bring up once more the handling by William IV of the Prussian situation in 1848, laying emphasis upon the lack of confidence shown by the present ruler and his minister in the so-called liberal ideas which, even in Prussia itself, seemed to lead to nothing but humiliation and disaster for the constituted authorities. The German people were too short-sighted at this time to understand or sympathize with the efforts of William and his minister, nor could they see any other possible means of attaining the end sought than those which marked the failures of 1848-49. It may not prove an easy matter to demonstrate to the satisfaction of a class any more than to those obstinate Liberals of Bismarck's day, that William and Bismarck needed the free hand afforded by a divine right monarchy to launch their project. The attitude of the king may be illustrated by his utterances at his public coronation, "The Kings of Prussia receive their crown from God. I shall therefore take my crown to-morrow from the Lord's table and place it on my head."* The appearance of Bismarck on the scene, and especially the crisis of the year which followed, marks the genesis of modern Germany. It is true that the army reorganization—the forging of the weapon—slightly antedates these events. It was not, however, until this crisis had been passed that the success of this part of the plan was definitely assured.

The Crisis of 1863.

It is perhaps possible to narrow the discussion to the army reforms and the way in which they were carried out in spite of the bitterest opposition, simply referring to 1863 as marking the crisis in the parliamentary struggle. To grasp the real significance of this date full weight must also be given to the meeting of the German princes under Austria's leadership, which the Prussian ruler refused to sanction by his presence, and the Polish insurrection,

*Judson, *Europe in the Nineteenth Century*, pp. 192-193.

* Andrews, *Development of Modern Europe*, Vol. II., p. 212.

* Seignobos, *Europe since 1814*, p. 438.

which won for Prussia the friendship of Russia. "The uprising of the Poles," says Andrews, "Made possible the attack upon Denmark, and enabled Bismarck to score the first of that series of victories which ended, seven years afterward, in the establishment of a united Germany." Prussia found herself confronted by a threefold problem, domestic enemies, a jealous rival and a divided confederation.

Austria and France as Obstacles to Unity.

It should not prove a difficult matter to keep before the class Austria's relation to unification in view of the similarity to the Italian situation. Prussia's action in 1863 in securing the friendship of Russia, and Bismarck's negotiations and conferences with Napoleon III and the Italian minister, and the assistance rendered by each in the Six Weeks' War should not be overlooked. The teacher can not do better than adopt the arrangement of material which is suggested by Henderson, dividing the period from 1863 to 1871 into two parts, "The reckoning with Austria" and "The reckoning with France."

The class is now ready for the legitimate pretext for war with Austria. This was the outcome of the Schleswig-Holstein question—one of the most complex in history. It is an open question whether anything is gained by following its various ramifications and deviations. "Lord Palmerston once said that only three persons ever understood the matter; one was dead, one crazy, and he himself the third, had forgotten what it was all about." It is enough to point out that Denmark put her-

self in the wrong and that Austria was persuaded by Bismarck to engage in the war which followed, whereby the Duchies were placed under their joint control. The cause of the Six Weeks' War should be clearly presented in order that the class may judge for themselves whether it was waged under a "legitimate pretext." It is also important to make clear the attitude of the various states of Germany, pointing out the alliances which were made with Austria, in order that the Prussian annexations which followed the war may be clearly understood.

The story of the reckoning with Napoleon III involves a clear statement of his interest in preventing the further aggrandizement of Prussia, pointing out his desire to extend the boundaries of France to the Rhine, thereby threatening the integrity of the states whose friendship and favor Prussia most desired to win. The Franco-Prussian War brings out clearly the great services of Moltke in the crowning work of unification. These had already been apparent on earlier battlefields, but his genius for organization nowhere shows to better advantage. The toll paid in dead and wounded by both sides in this last great European struggle of the century furnishes a splendid commentary on the horrors of war. It should be noted in this connection that Bismarck only entered these struggles because of a firmly rooted conviction that they were inevitable and unavoidable.

Dr. Jaeger makes some excellent suggestions to the German teacher of history with regard to where the emphasis should be placed in the narration of the events from 1863 to 1871. They are as follows:

1. That the life of a great nation such as ours is a matter of vast importance.

2. That the union of a great nation to form one State has never been secured by the peaceful co-operation of its component parts—*tantae molis erat Romanam condere gentem*.

3. That the military struggle between Austria and Prussia, between the old Germany of the federal days and the new Germany—a civil or fratricidal war—implied the removal of the stagnation which would have been death to the nation.

4. That it was an act of Divine providence that the lessons of history and the recognition of the pitiable conditions from 1815 to 1863 were forced upon the old Germany by the new Prussian State and its slowly growing strength, and not by a triumphant France.

"As regards the reconciling war with France," he says in conclusion, "We need say nothing. The coldest teacher will here be inspired."

Literature.

One of the most readable and inspiring accounts is that to be found in Henderson's Short History of Germany, Vol. II, Chaps. VIII-X. Reference has already been made to Judson, Europe in the Nineteenth Century and to Andrews. These books may be supplemented by the accounts of Phillips, Modern Europe 1815-1899, Seignobos, Political History of Europe since 1814, and Vol. XI, of the Cambridge Modern History. An excellent biography of Bismarck is the volume by Headlam in the Heroes of the Nations' Series.

Ancient History in the Secondary School

WILLIAM FAIRLEY, Ph.D., Editor.

A Neglected Period.

The centuries lying between the so-called fall of Rome and the rise of Charlemagne must be hurried over by teacher and student out of deference to syllabi and examinations. But be it remembered that here lies a period longer than has elapsed since the Pilgrim fathers landed at Plymouth. And these are centuries of mighty moment. For in them the foundations of the modern nations were laid, and the influences shaped that served to make our civilization of the present what it is. But lying as it does on the border land between ancient and modern history, this great formative era receives from the ordinary student but slight attention. In our scheme of history this cannot be helped. We must make the best of the opportunities we have.

What to Emphasize.

History here is moving in great waves, with an occasional monster crest roaring high above its fellows. The young student ought to carry with him from this closing study of what we call ancient history a

panoramic mental picture with certain clearly marked principal features. These may well be summed up as follows:

- A. The Teutonic Kingdoms.
- B. The Eastern Empire.
- C. Mohammedanism.
- D. The Papacy.
- E. Charles the Great.

The Teutonic Kingdoms.

Daubing the fallen stones of the great Roman edifice with the rude mortar of their own institutions the Germanic tribes built up painfully the foundations of the modern nations. We speak often of the Latin nations of southwestern Europe. But the German mixture in them all is still marked and potent. Spain received the Suevi, the Vandals (Andalusia), the Visigoths; Italy the Ostrogoth and the Lombard; France the Burgundian and the Frank; Britain the Angle, the Saxon and the Jute. By the way, it is well to remember that the Anglo-Saxon occupation of Britain was but a part of the great Germanic migration, though distinguished by the fact that here the

German overlaying of the Roman was more complete than elsewhere.

One or two great names stand out in each of these divisions of our period. Theodoric in Italy and Clovis among the Franks are typical mighty men. In the preceding article allusion has been made to the fact that most of these barbarians were already converted to Christianity when they came into the empire. The orthodoxy of Clovis and the Arianism of Theodoric and the Lombards may well be pointed out early on account of the great subsequent effect of this divergence in their faith and that of their people. The whole relation of the Franks to the Papacy has its germ here. A source of the rapid growth of the papal supremacy is to be found in the adhesion of the Franks to Roman orthodoxy.

The Eastern Empire.

It has been the fashion to sneer at the Eastern Empire as the home of effete orientalism. Decay, tottering to fall, has been the idea commonly held with regard to it. But a thousand years is a long time

for an empire to be in process of decay. And this empire stood firm for many invaluable interests from 476 to 1453 A.D. Here again emerges the one great man—Justinian. His contributions to human welfare are marked. The thing for which he is best remembered, probably, is the reduction of the Roman Law to a science. And that law rules half of Europe to-day, and is even part of the heritage of French America. Moreover he knew how to estimate and use great soldiers, and he solidified and strengthened his empire so that for dismal centuries after him it was able to withstand and to fight off from eastern and central Europe the onslaughts of the Moslem until the time when developed Europe should be able to hold its own. During its thousand years of life, also, that Eastern Empire conserved the learning and the polish of the western world. Constantinople was the greenhouse into which the tenderest plants of human culture were set to keep them alive while the winter storms of the dark ages swept the rest of the world.

Mohammedanism.

Can sweet and bitter waters flow from the same fountain? That depends upon the magician. And Mohammed was such a magician. It is cheap enough to decry his teaching and its influence. Blight and scourge it may have been, and still may be in many quarters. Yet its services were great. Surely his monotheism was better than the old Arabian idolatry. Above all the young student should be taught to value the work of the Moors in Spain. And even the despised Turk, as the amazed crusaders found, had something to teach the Christian. Mohammedanism is capable

yet of giving mighty shocks to Western Europe, as witness the everlasting "Eastern question" and the Indian problem. Our boys and girls should know something of the origin of this great faith, and the sources of its power.

The Papacy.

The ghost of the Cæsars still is incarnated in the popes. The temporal sovereignty of "The Eternal City" has faded; yet her spiritual influence, yes, and her political influence is a factor with which the shrewdest and most hostile statesman must reckon. Laying aside, as we must here, all consideration of the heavenly sanction of the papacy, the budding citizen may well learn how this mighty institution came by its dominance. Here again shine forth great names—Leo and Gregory. In addition to mighty personalities other causes helped to make the Roman bishop mighty and venerated. They may be roughly analyzed as follows:

(a) The religious unity of Western Europe under the bishops of Rome. The Eastern Empire had its various patriarchates: Constantinople, Alexandria, Jerusalem, Antioch; in the West was but one—that of Rome.

(b) The glamor of the Roman tradition. Rome had been the center to which men had looked. Shorn of her earthly glory she now seemed to shine with a heavenly radiance.

(c) The Roman Catholic Church was closely organized on the outlines of the old empire. As an organization it was the one conspicuous success of an age of disorganization and turbulence.

(d) Missionary zeal played an important part. The Eastern Church and Empire had

all it could do in holding its own against the constant threat of Islam. The Roman faith spread fast and far under the energy of its Augustines, its Columbans and its Bonifaces.

The Catholic Church was the one great permanent, thriving, unifying force of the time.

Charles the Great.

Possibly it would be better to call him Karl. For then we could not mistake his German blood. Call him Charlemagne, and he seems almost a modern Frenchman. That title is a disguise. His religious character is closely entwined with the development of the Papacy. He served the pope; the pope served him; and both were stronger for the alliance. His titles to greatness are numerous. His grandfather had hurled back the Moors at Tours, he restricted them still further in Spain, and freed Europe from fear in that quarter. To his shrewd skill as organizer and administrator his existing laws bear witness. An excellent use of "sources" would be to take the translation of the "Capitulary and Inventory of Charles the Great" (University of Pennsylvania Translations and Reprints, Vol. II, No. 2) or the "Laws of Charles the Great" (ibid. Vol. VI, No. 5) and have some parts of them read in the class. Such an exercise would do more than a score of pages of a text book to let the students feel that Karl was a real person, and had real things about him.

Finally, our purpose in this history work should be to vivify this faraway world, to show the origins of familiar things of to-day in the shadowy past, and to link the whole human family in one great development.

Paxson's "The Last American Frontier"

The fiction of a "Great American Desert" and the signing by the United States of a series of Indian treaties during the thirties, served to establish in 1840 an unbroken frontier on the west and north of Missouri stretching from the Texas boundary line northward and northeastward to the head of Green Bay in Wisconsin. After the process of removal of the eastern tribes had been completed, President Jackson could say in 1835, "The pledge of the United States has been given by Congress that the country destined for the residence of this people shall be forever secured and guaranteed to them . . . No political communities can be formed in that extensive region . . . A barrier has thus been raised for their protection against the encroachment of our citizens."

Starting with this situation about 1840, Professor Frederic L. Paxson in his recent work, "The Last American Frontier," shows how, through various agencies and movements this "Unalterable" line was first pushed back at the north, then split in two,

and later attacked in the rear from the Pacific Coast settlements, until with the completion of the Pacific railroads in the eighties and the passage of the Dawes act in 1887 the Indian frontier had altogether disappeared.

There are hundreds of books describing western frontier life in lurid pen-pictures of buffaloes, prairie-fires, Indians, mining-camps, and stage-coaches; there are huge volumes of governmental reports containing a mixture of geographical, ethnographical, and biological facts; there is a whole pamphlet literature upon the Indian question, with the usual venom of pamphleteering; and there have been a few scholarly studies of institutional development in certain parts of the "Great West." Dr. Paxson's work is the first to treat all these events in the light of recent American scholarship, and as part of a general movement. The author has made a happy combination in describing the picturesque features of western life, the institutional development of the new communities, and

the Indian administration of the national government.

The success of the book is due to the excellent mental picture given of the definite frontier existing in 1840 and of the process of subsequent inroads upon it. The author's dramatic sense is strong, and he never leaves the reader without an impression of the effect of a given movement upon the general frontier. Moreover the work is eminently sane; its judgments upon the many disputed questions of the western frontier are trustworthy.

After a general description of the early westward movement, and a careful statement of the location of the Indian tribes in 1840, chapter three begins the story of the abolition of the frontier by the pushing out of new settlements in Iowa, Wisconsin and Minnesota. This advance brought the Indian frontier to a north and south line running west of Missouri and Arkansas. The next inroad into the Indian country, that caused by the traders upon the old Santa Fe trail, is described, and many

interesting details of the equipment of the traders, the value of the commerce upon the trail, and its influence upon the Mexican War are given. Chapter five shows in a similar manner the opening of the north-west, and the passage of emigrants to the Pacific Coast by means of the Oregon Trail. This trail also traversed land solemnly promised as the permanent home of the Indian; yet the emigrants received in 1848 recognition from Washington by the act organizing the territory of Oregon. Thus was established the first Pacific Coast entrenchment upon the Indian's land. The settlement of the Mormons on Great Salt Lake and of the Forty-niners in California strengthened the forces which were to attack the frontier from the rear.

The Kansas-Nebraska Act was the next advance upon the Indian. During 1853 the Indians near the Missouri border were intimidated and cajoled into surrendering nine-tenths of their lands; and a few months later came the rush of settlers from north and south for the control of the new country. The political agitation together with the demand for more agricultural land brought one hundred thousand persons to Kansas by 1860. In the preceding year the rumors of the finding of gold in the Pike's Peak region, led to a flocking of emigrants to that country; and soon about Denver there were numerous mining camps with a large fluctuating population. Neglected by Congress these settlers established a government for the "Territory of Jefferson" as they called themselves; and next they demanded stage-coach connection with the east, ignoring the rights of the Indians upon the plains.

Similar finds of gold and silver led to the flow of prospectors and miners into Nevada, Washington, Idaho, and Wyoming. In each case there is the same story of the ignoring of the Indian's rights, the cutting down of his hunting lands, and the organization of the white settlers into territorial government. But the settlers demanded closer communication with the east. In response to their cries Congress entered into contracts

with the proprietors of the "Overland Mail;" but long before this, surveys were made for a railroad to the west. Professor Paxson traces the history of the Union Pacific measures in Congress, culminating in the act of July 1, 1862.

Before the railroads were completed, however, the plains witnessed a series of Indian wars, quite different from the occasional outbreaks which occurred before the sixties. The wars, which included the great outbreaks of the Cheyennes and of the Sioux, were not, thinks Dr. Paxson, the result of the stirring up of the Indians by the Confederates in the Civil War, but the natural last stand of the Indians against the white invasion of their hunting grounds. Conflicts of authority and of ideals between the United States Army officers and the Indian agents served also to light the fires of war, or to keep them aflame. The Union Pacific was built during the period of these wars and its workmen, many of them discharged Union soldiers, were as ready to fight the Indian as they were to set the ties and lay the railroad track.

A new Indian policy was adopted with the act of 1869 providing for a board of Indian commissioners, which culminated in the humane provisions of the Dawes Act of 1887. Education, civilization, legal titles to the land, and agricultural development now took the place of the earlier war-like policy of extermination. The Dawes Act prepared the way, also, for the great influx of population brought by the new railroads in the eighties and early nineties, an incoming which finally put an end to the Indian frontier.

Dr. Paxson closes his work with a bibliography of the subjects treated in his volume, and with an excellent index. There are a few maps in the volume; the reader would be assisted greatly by good reference maps showing the situation of all the forts and places named and the location of the several Indian tribes at different periods.

["The Last American Frontier." By Frederic Logan Paxson. Pp. xii, 402. The Macmillan Co. Price, \$1.50 net.]

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, Editor.

NOTES.

At the June meeting of the High School Department of the Pennsylvania State Educational Association, which will be held at Erie on June 29th and 30th, the subject of "A Rational High School Course in History" will be discussed. A paper will be read by Principal W. C. Graham of Wilkesburg, and the paper will be discussed by Herbert J. Stockton of the McKeesport High School.

An exhibit of historical material arranged by the New England History Association and shown at Boston at the spring meeting on April 16, has been permanently located

at Simmons College, Boston. It will be enlarged and open for view during the meeting of the National Educational Association, July 2nd to 8th. Arrangements probably will be made by which the exhibit may be transported to different parts of New England. The committee upon historical material is Professor Arthur I. Andrews, Simmons College, Chairman; Miss Ellen Scott Davison, Bradford Academy; Professor W. S. Ferguson, Harvard University; Mr. L. R. Wells, Mechanics Art School, Boston; Miss Mabelle Moses, Women's Industrial and Educational Union; and Mr. W. H. Cushing, High School, South Framingham.

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Maryland History Association.

The History Teachers Association of Maryland held an interesting session at McCoy Hall, Johns Hopkins University, on April 9th, 1910. The meeting was in the nature of a practical discussion of recent writings upon Ancient History, upon English and European History, and upon American History. A report was given by Dr. Abel of the New York meeting of the Association of the History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland. There was also an exhibit of maps and rare historical works.

HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

For the convenience of its readers and to stimulate the work of organization, THE MAGAZINE will print from time to time a list of the associations, with the names and addresses of the secretaries. Will our readers help us fill in the gaps, and keep us informed of changes in the secretarial offices?

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.—W. G. Leland, Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C., secretary.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, PACIFIC COAST BRANCH.—J. N. Bowman, University of California, Berkeley, secretary.

CALIFORNIA.—Ada G. Goldsmith, Mission High School, San Francisco, secretary.

INDIANA.—Professor Harriet Palmer, Franklin, secretary.

MARYLAND.—Ella V. Ricker, Baltimore, secretary.

MIDDLE STATES.—Professor Henry Johnson, Teachers' College, New York City, secretary.

MILWAUKEE CONFERENCE.—Informally organized.

MISSISSIPPI.—H. L. McCleskey, Hazelhurst, secretary.

MISSOURI.—Professor Eugene Fair, Kirksville, secretary.

NEBRASKA.—Professor C. N. Anderson, Kearney, president.

NEW ENGLAND.—Mr. W. H. Cushing, South Framingham, Mass., secretary.

NEW YORK (N. Y.) CONFERENCE.—D. C. Knowlton, Barringer High School, Newark, N. J., secretary.

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NORTH DAKOTA ASSOCIATION.—H. L. Rockwood, Enderlin, president.

TWIN CITY HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—W. H. Shepard, North High School, Minneapolis, Minn., president.

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MISSOURI ASSOCIATION.

The report of the third annual meeting of the Missouri Association reaches us as we go to press. The meeting was well attended and the program interesting, beginning with an address by the president, H. R. Tucker. At the business meeting a tentative report was made by the committee on History in High Schools in Missouri; a final report is expected in November. Miss Mary M. Porter, of the St. Joseph High School was elected president; the present incumbents of other offices were re-elected.

ANNOUNCEMENTS.

Officers of associations are requested to send notices of meetings to W. H. Cushing, South Framingham, Mass., as long before the date of meeting as possible.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.—December 27, 1910, at Indianapolis, Ind.

PACIFIC COAST BRANCH OF AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.—November 18-19, 1910, at University of California, Berkeley.

CALIFORNIA HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—July 14, 1910, at Berkeley.

MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.—Third annual meeting, May 25-27, 1910, at Iowa City, Iowa.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION.—Forty-eighth annual convention, July 2 to 8, 1910, at Boston, Mass.

NEW ENGLAND HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—Fall meeting, October 15, 1910, at Boston.

PENNSYLVANIA: HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT OF STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—June 29-30, 1910, at Erie.

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